1 Survival and cause-specific mortality of harvested willow

2 ptarmigan (*Lagopus lagopus*) in central Norway

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12

13 Abstract

14 Survival is a key demographic component that often vary as a result of human activities such

15 as recreational harvest. Detailed understanding of seasonal variation in mortality patterns and

16 the role of various risk factors is thus crucial for understanding the link between

17 environmental variation and wildlife population dynamics, and to design sustainable harvest

18 management systems. Here, we report from a detailed seasonal and cause-specific

19 decomposition of mortality risks in willow ptarmigan (*Lagopus lagopus*) in central Norway.

20 The analyses are based on radio collared (n=188) birds that were monitored across all

seasons, and we used time-to-event models for competing risks to estimate mortality patterns.

22 Overall, annual survival was estimated at 0.43 (SE: 0.04), with no distinct difference among

years (2015/16 to 2018/19) or between sexes. Analysis of mortality risk factors revealed that
 on the annual basis, the risk of harvest mortality was lower than the risk of dying from natural

on the annual basis, the risk of harvest mortality was lower than the risk of dying from natura
 causes. However, during the autumn harvest season (Sept. – Nov.), survival was low and the

26 dominating cause of mortality was harvest. During winter (Dec. – Mar.) and spring seasons

27 (Apr. - May), survival was in general high and did not vary between males and females.

However, during the spring season juveniles (i.e. birds born last year) of both sexes had lower

survival than adults, potentially because they are more prone to predation. During the summer

30 season (June – Aug.) females experienced a higher hazard than males, underlining the greater

31 parental investment of females during egg production, incubation and chick rearing compared

to males. Our analyses provide unique insight into demographic and seasonal patterns in

willow ptarmigan mortality risks in a harvested population, and revealed a complex interplay
 across seasons, risk factors and demographic classes. Such insight is valuable when designing

sustainable management plans in a world undergoing massive environmental perturbations.

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37 Key words: demography, grouse, harvest, cause-specific mortality, survival

38

40 Introduction

41 Population dynamics is driven by temporal and spatial fluctuations in demographic rates, that

42 together determine the population growth rate λ (Sæther *et al.* 1999; Sæther & Bakke 2000).

43 Both survival and reproductive output contribute to the observed variation, and their general

44 contribution varies both in time and space (Sæther & Bakke 2000; Nilsen et al. 2009). In

addition, research focusing on the evolution of life history strategies have found that species

- can be classified along a slow-fast continuum (Stearns 1983; Sæther & Bakke 2000; Bielby *et*
- 47 *al.* 2007). Generally, fast living species have low survival and high reproductive output,
- 48 whereas slow living species have high survival rates and lower reproductive output (Sæther *et*
- 49 *al.* 2013). Species on opposite ends of the continuum also differ in the way age-specific
- 50 survival contributes to the population growth rate (Sæther *et al.* 2013). The potential
- 51 contribution of adult survival is higher in slow living species (Sæther & Bakke 2000),
- 52 whereas the potential contribution of early life survival is higher in fast living species (Bielby
- *et al.* 2007). Annual mortality patterns are often very different for species on different ends of
- 54 the continuum. Therefore, understanding the spatiotemporal variation in survival and cause-55 specific mortality rates are imperative for understanding the population dynamics of wildlife
- 56 species (DelGiudice *et al.* 2002; Heisey & Patterson 2006; Murray 2006).
- 57 Previous studies have reported that demographic factors such as sex and age can significantly
- affect the survival probability (Shackell *et al.* 1994; Caizergues & Ellison 1997; Beauplet *et al.*
- *al.* 2006) and mortality causes (Hannon, Gruys & Schieck 2003; Delgiudice *et al.* 2006;
- 60 Chilvers & MacKenzie 2010; Asmyhr, Willebrand & Hörnell-Willebrand 2012) of a range of
- avian species. Moreover, in temporally variable environments mortality risk might vary
- through time (Gauthier *et al.* 2001; Crespin *et al.* 2002), and the ability to deal with
- 63 unpredictable environmental conditions may vary between life stages (Delgiudice *et al.* 2006).
- 64 For instance, adult survival is often reported to be higher and less variable than juvenile
- 65 survival (Guillemain *et al.* 2013). Finally, in seasonal environments certain seasons within the

66 year may also place more stress on one sex than the other, such as the energy demanding

67 process of egg production (Nilsson & Råberg 2001) and incubation (Haftorn & Reinertsen

68 1985) for female birds or risky behavior undertaken by males in the mating season (Hannon,

- 69 Gruys & Schieck 2003).
- 70 In wild vertebrate populations, individuals are typically facing competing risks from a range
- of different sources, and these sources might have different intensities in different times of the
- year. In exploited populations, previous studies have demonstrated that harvest-related
- 73 mortality risks may be close to or even higher than natural mortality risks in parts of the year
- 74 (Rolland *et al.* 2010; Sandercock *et al.* 2011). Harvest mortality is often assumed to be
- partially compensated through reduced natural mortality (Pedersen *et al.* 2004). However, this
- 76 may only be true at low harvest rates, where harvest mortality above certain levels may be
- increasingly additive or even super-additive (Sandercock *et al.* 2011). Knowledge of such
- thresholds and any compensatory mechanisms is thus essential information for sustainable
- 79 harvest management (Brøseth *et al.* 2005). For harvested wildlife populations, understanding
- the interplay between harvest induced mortality and other natural mortality sources is
- 81 important in order to establish sustainable harvest strategies (Sandercock et al. 2011).
- 82 Willow ptarmigan (*Lagopus lagopus* L.) is a valued game species, and is hunted in many parts 83 of its distributional range (Storch 2007), including Scandinavia (Aanes *et al.* 2002; Asmyhr,

Willebrand & Hörnell-Willebrand 2012). After a strong decline in population numbers, the 84 willow ptarmigan was in 2015 classified as near threatened (NT) in the Norwegian Red List 85 for Species (Henriksen & Hilmo 2015), fueling a debate of harvest effects on population 86 development (Breisjøberget et al. 2018). This makes the Norwegian willow ptarmigan 87 population a highly relevant case study for a detailed examination of variation in mortality 88 patterns for a managed wildlife species. To this end, we used five years of telemetry data from 89 central Norway to characterize annual and seasonal mortality risks for different sex- and age 90 classes. In particular, we first (i) estimated annual survival rates for the different demographic 91 groups in the population. Second, (ii) we decomposed the annual cycle into distinct seasons 92 and assessed sex- and age- effects within seasons. Finally, (iii) we estimated the relative 93 natural and harvest induced risks using a competing risks formulation, and estimated seasonal 94 patterns in hazard rates. In sum, these analyses will provide an important description of how 95 different hazards shape the annual mortality patterns for different demographic groups in a 96

97 wildlife population.

98

99 Materials and methods

100 Study area

101 The basis of our field study was two locations, Lifjellet $(64^{\circ}25' - 64^{\circ}30'N, 13^{\circ}11' - 13^{\circ}24'E)$ approx. 96km²) and Gusvatnet (64°15′ – 64°18′N, 13°25′ – 13°37′E, approx. 54km²) 102 respectively, in Lierne municipality in Central Norway, where all captures and marking of 103 birds occurred (Figure 1). Because some birds migrated relatively long distances (> 25km, 104 Arnekleiv 2020), our dataset also include several relocations in neighboring municipalities. 105 Radio tagged willow ptarmigan were triangulated inside the total study area, as the birds 106 dispersed or migrated out of the main areas. The capture sites for willow ptarmigan (see next 107 section) spanned elevations from 459 - 757m, and were located in the subalpine to alpine 108 bioclimatic zone. The subalpine bioclimatic zone was dominated by spruce (Picea abies L.) 109 interspersed with birch (*Betula pubescens*). Dwarf birch (*B. nana* L.) and willows (*Salix spp.*) 110 comprise most of the shrubbery scattered amongst forest patches. At lower elevations 111 bogs/marshes are covered by grasses and sedges and the forests by ericaceous plants, while 112 the vegetation at higher altitudes is dominated by dwarf birch heather, sedges and lichens. The 113 ground is typically snow-covered from October until May. Main predators on adult willow 114 ptarmigan observed in the study area include, gyrfalcons (Falco rusticolus L.), golden eagles 115 (Aquila chrysaetos L.) and red fox (Vulpes Vulpes L.). Red fox and golden eagles predate on 116 both nests (E. B. Nilsen, unpublished data) and adult willow ptarmigan (Munkebye et al. 117 118 2003; Nyström et al. 2006b), while gyrfalcons mostly prey upon yearling or adult willow ptarmigan (Booms & Fuller 2003; Nyström et al. 2006a; Barichello & Mossop 2011). In 119 addition, arctic fox (Vulpes lagopus L.) and lynx (Lynx lynx L.) are present in the study area, 120 but probably does not represent major mortality risks for ptarmigan in the study area due to 121 low densities. 122

123

124 Field methods

During February and March 2015-2019, we captured a total of 188 willow ptarmigan at night using snowmobiles and large hand nets with prolonged handles, as described in Nilsen *et al.*

(2020). To prevent birds from flying off before the field personnel were close enough to 127 capture them, a high-powered head lamp was used to dazzle the birds. After capture, we 128 placed the birds in an opaque bag to reduce stress. We aged the birds based on descriptions in 129 Bergerud, Peters and McGrath (1963) and Myrberget (1975), by examining the pigmentation 130 on the outer primaries and categorized them as either juvenile (< 1 year old) or adult (> 1 year 131 old). We assessed the sex of each bird in the field by visual inspection of morphological 132 characteristics and later confirmed the sex by DNA analyses using a feather sample collected 133 during capture. For 17 birds we did not obtain any biological samples or the DNA analysis 134 was unsuccessful, and could thus not confirm sex using DNA. Based on the birds where both 135 field-based and DNA-based sex determination was obtained (n=166), field-based 136 determination was correct in 85% (141/166) of the cases. We therefore opted to include birds 137 where sex was not verified using DNA analyses; we are aware that this induces a potential 138 bias. Before releasing the birds, they were fitted with a uniquely numbered leg ring ($\sim 2.4g$) 139 and a Holohil RI-2BM or Holohil RI-2DM radio transmitter (~ 14.1g). The radio transmitters 140 had an expected battery lifetime of 24 months (RI-2BM) or 30 months (RI-2DM), and 141 included a mortality circuit that was activated if a bird had been immobile for 12 hours. For 142 all marked birds, the combined weight of the leg ring and radio transmitter were < 3.5% of the 143 body mass. From the total number of birds that we instrumented with VHF radio collars (n = 144 188), some birds (n = 6) were never relocated after release and were thus excluded from the 145 study. This left us with a total sample of n = 182 individual willow ptarmigan included in the 146 analyses. Of these birds, there were 53% females and 47% males. During the study period, we 147 recorded mortalities for 124 birds (i.e., 68% of all birds marked), whereas 58 birds (32%) 148 were censored either because we lost contact or because they were alive at the end of the 149 study period (Table 1). As previous studies did not find adverse effects of radio tags on 150 survival (Thirgood et al. 1995; Hannon, Gruys & Schieck 2003; Terhune et al. 2007), we 151

assumed the radio tags would not influence the survival of willow ptarmigan.

153

Following release of the radio tagged birds, they were triangulated from the ground at least once a month for 10 months of the year (February – November) by qualified field personnel. If a mortality signal was heard from the transmitter, we recovered it as soon as possible to determine cause of death. A number of birds dispersed out of the main study areas and was thus out of signal range for field personnel on the ground. To avoid loss of data, we conducted aerial triangulation using a helicopter or airplane three times a year (May, September and November) in the years 2016-2019. In 2015, we only conducted one triangulation from the air

in October.

162 The data used here is based on an ongoing field project, and the dataset is therefore

163 continuously updated as new data is registered. For analyses reported here we used data

164 collected between 16.02.2015 to 27.11.2019.

165

166 Individual capture histories

167 As a basis for our analysis of annual survival probabilities, we set 1 August to represent the

- start of the biological year. This choice made it possible to directly compare our results with
- those from previous studies in Scandinavia (Smith & Willebrand 1999; Sandercock *et al.*
- 170 2011). With the redefined year, the first time period of the study started 1 August 2014 and

ended on 31 July 2015, while the final time period (6 in total) started 1 August 2019 and ends
31 July 2020. Hereafter, "year" refers to the biological year from 1 August to 31 July.

In addition to the analysis of annual survival probabilities, we also assessed patterns of 173 survival in four distinct seasons. First, we defined the autumn season as 1 September to 30 174 November. This season is strongly affected by the annual recreational harvest season starting 175 10 September, and previous studies from Scandinavia have shown that harvest is a 176 dominating mortality factor in autumn (Smith & Willebrand 1999; Sandercock et al. 2011). 177 Most of the hunting effort usually takes place during the first weeks after the hunting season 178 has started (Smith & Willebrand 1999; Willebrand, Hörnell-Willebrand & Asmyhr 2011). In 179 our case, there were only two harvest-related mortalities outside the defined autumn season 180 (during the winter harvest season in February), these were included as mortalities in the 181 winter and full year analyses. Second, we defined the winter season as 1 December to 31 182 March. Winter survival of willow ptarmigan in Scandinavia have typically been found to be 183 high (Smith & Willebrand 1999; Sandercock et al. 2011). Finally, we defined the mating and 184 pre-brooding period as the spring season (1 April to 31 May), while the incubation and chick 185 rearing period was defined as the summer season (1 June to 31 August). The age of each bird 186 (juvenile vs adult) was estimated at capture in February/March and separated into two age 187 categories (< 1 year old and > 1 year old). In the further analyses, age was only included as a 188 predictor variable for the spring survival analysis, as the presence of juvenile willow 189 ptarmigan could only be known with certainty for the spring season. Given that juveniles were 190 approx. nine months old at capture, there were no marked juveniles present during the autumn 191 192 season for our study. Further, a comparison between the survival of "yearlings" and adults could not be made due to the low number of yearlings still alive in the autumn and winter 193 months. 194

Based on the time schedules described above, we constructed capture histories for each bird 195 following a time-to-event modelling approach (Pollock et al. 1989). Birds that were alive at 196 the end of the year (31 July) or season (see above for definitions) were censored, and re-197 entered in a new row in the dataset for the next year or season. All juvenile birds alive at the 198 end of the year were re-entered as adults at the start of the new year (1 August). Thus, each 199 observation in the dataset is one bird in one given year. For all years in total, we had 350 200 observations or 'bird-years'. Naturally, with only one tagging session in February/March the 201 number of observations available for analyses decreased due to mortalities from winter (n = 202 251), spring (n = 232), summer (n = 206) to autumn (n = 161). In addition to the capture-203 204 related variables (ring identification number, sex and age), five new variables were created: time period, entry day, exit day, event (if the bird was alive = 0 or dead = 1) and cause of 205 death (harvest = 1 or natural = 2). Natural causes were defined as any non-harvest related 206 207 mortality. All unknown mortality causes were assumed to be natural (since harvested marked 208 ptarmigans were reported), but not identifiable to a single natural cause. We assumed that all 209 harvested birds were reported as harvested. Hunters were frequently reminded to report and return radio tags and/or leg rings and since marked birds were not banned from harvest, this 210 should be a valid assumption. Nevertheless, some harvested birds may not have been reported 211 212 and could thus yield a slight underestimation of harvest mortality rates.

Because the birds were not monitored in continuous time, the exit date (i.e., date for mortality
or censoring) had to be estimated in many cases. For birds that were alive at the end of the
study, exit day was set to the day that they were last confirmed to be alive. Birds that died due

- to natural causes, had their exit day defined as the midpoint between the last day they were
- 217 heard alive and the first time the mortality signal from the transmitter was heard. For birds
- that were shot by hunters, exit day was set according to the day the bird was shot, as reported
- by the hunters. A few birds (n = 4) that were censored due to loss of contact (radio transmitter
- failure or other), re-entered the study when they were reported as shot and their status was
- changed to alive until the day they were shot.
- 222

223 Survival analyses

- Survival rates were estimated using five years of radio telemetry data, collected between 2015
- and 2019 in Lierne, Snåsa, Grong and Røyrvik municipalities. We applied Pollock *et al.*
- 226 (1989) staggered-entry modification of the Kaplan-Meier procedure (Kaplan & Meier 1958)
- to estimate annual and seasonal survival rates on a daily basis in the statistical software R,
- version 3.6.1 (R Core Team 2019), employing functions from the *survival* package (Therneau
- 229 2015). Other analyses and data handling were also conducted in R.
- 230 To examine variation in mortality risk due to sex, age and year, we used Cox proportional
- hazards regression models fitted using the function *coxph* (Therneau 2015). To account for
- non-independence caused by the fact that some individuals were represented by more than
- one observation, individual ID (ring identification number) was included as a random
- variable. The proportional hazards assumption of all cox regression models were assessed by
- running model diagnostics with the *cox.zph* function (Therneau 2015). Annual cause-specific
- mortality under the competing risks of natural and harvest mortality was estimated by
- employing a nonparametric cumulative incidence function estimator (NPCIFE) described by Hainer and Batterson (2006), using the ends modified by Sandarasely et al. (2011). The same
- Heisey and Patterson (2006), using the code modified by Sandercock *et al.* (2011). The same
 procedure was also used to estimate the cumulative risk of natural and harvest mortality
- 240 during autumn only. To test for any dependencies in harvest or natural mortality risk due to
- sex, we used a stratified Cox proportional hazards analysis. We first stratified the data by
- mortality cause (natural or harvest) and then ran two separate Cox proportional hazards
- regressions, one for natural mortality risk and one for harvest mortality risk, testing for an
- effect of sex in each model. Finally, we estimated separate continuous annual hazard
- 245 functions for both mortality causes combined, for harvest mortality only and natural mortality
- only by employing Gu (2014) smoothing spline functions.
- All survival analysis figures were created using package *ggplot2* (Wickham 2016), while the map in Figure 1 was created with packages *leaflet* and *mapview* (Cheng, Karambelkar & Xie
- 249 2018; Appelhans *et al.* 2019).
- 250

251 **Results**

252 Annual survival probabilities

- 253 Annual survival probability of willow ptarmigan across all years was estimated to be 0.43 \pm
- 254 0.04 SE (Figure 2a). For females and males, annual survival was estimated to be 0.40 ± 0.05
- SE and 0.45 ± 0.05 SE respectively (Figure 2b). When stratified by sex, the proportional
- hazards assumption was not met ($\chi^2 = 5.71$, P = 0.02), and we therefore did not use Cox

- 257 proportional regression to assess this difference statistically. We further examined if there was
- any between-year variation in annual survival (Figure 2c), but no significant between-year
- variation in annual survival was found (Wald test = 1.67, df = 3, P = 0.60). The assumption about proportional hazards for the global model was met (χ^2 = 7.27, P = 0.06). Therefore,
- about proportional nazards for the groun model was met $\chi^2 = 7.27$, 1 261 annual survival estimates remained relatively stable for all years.
- 262

263 Seasonal survival rates

264 In the second part of the analysis we created distinct datasets for the various seasons (as defined in the methods), and estimated survival probabilities for each season separately. As 265 expected, autumn survival was low (0.67 \pm 0.04 SE), and there were some indications that 266 males had higher mortality risk than females during this season (HR = 1.53, 95% CI = 0.90 -267 2.60, z = 1.58, P = 0.11; Figure 3a). The assumption of proportional hazards was met when 268 stratified by sex ($\chi^2 = < 0.01$, P = 0.98). During the winter season, overall survival probability 269 was high (0.90 ± 0.03 SE), with no discernible difference in mortality risk between males and 270 females (HR = 0.65, 95% CI = 0.24 - 1.78, z = -0.84, P = 0.40). The assumption of 271 proportional hazards when stratified by sex was met ($\chi^2 = 2.28$, P = 0.13). Also during spring, 272 survival probabilities were high (0.90 \pm 0.02 SE). The proportional hazards assumption was 273 met for sex ($\chi^2 = 0.07$, P = 0.79) and age ($\chi^2 = 0.08$, P = 0.78), for the spring survival data. 274 There were no difference in survival between males and females (HR = 1.10, 95% CI = 0.47 - 100%275 2.58, z = 0.23, P = 0.82) in spring, but juveniles (< 1 year old) had a substantially higher risk 276 of mortality than adult birds (HR = 2.35, 95% CI = 1.01 - 5.45, z = 1.98, P = 0.05; Figure 3b). 277 During the three month long summer season, survival probability was lower than both winter 278

- and spring survival (0.82 ± 0.03 SE), and males had a substantially lower mortality risk than
- 280 females (HR = 0.33, 95% CI = 0.16 0.69, z = -2.93, P = < 0.01; Figure 3c). The summer
- survival data for sex met the assumption of proportional hazards ($\chi^2 = 3.09$, P = 0.08). For all seasonal analyses, year did not explain a significant amount of the variation in mortality risk
- for any season and the proportional hazards assumption was met for all seasonal data (except
- summer) used to test for effects of year (see Appendix 1).
- 285

286 Temporal variation in cause-specific mortality risk

In the third and final part of the analyses we investigated annual and seasonal cause-specific 287 mortality risk. Annually, there was a higher probability of mortality due to natural causes 288 $(CIF = 0.33 \pm 0.03 \text{ SE}, 95\% \text{ CI} = 0.28 - 0.38)$ than being shot $(CIF = 0.25 \pm 0.04 \text{ SE}, 95\% \text{ CI})$ 289 = 0.19 - 0.31) for willow ptarmigan in this study (Figure 4a). Unsurprisingly, this relationship 290 was reversed when we examined the autumn season only, with harvest mortality being 291 substantially higher (CIF = 0.24 ± 0.04 SE, 95% CI = 0.18 - 0.30) than the probability of 292 dying of natural causes (CIF = 0.09 ± 0.03 SE, 95% CI = 0.04 - 0.14; Figure 4b). We did not 293 find any clear difference in mortality risk between males and females for the risk of being 294 shot (HR = 1.51, 95% CI = 0.81 - 2.81, z = 1.28, P = 0.20) or dying of natural causes (HR = 295 1.60, 95% CI = 0.53 - 4.82, z = 0.83, P = 0.41). 296

Finally, we estimated smoothed instantaneous mortality risk for natural and harvest
 mortalities combined (total), harvest mortalities only and natural mortality only (Figure 4c).

299 In general, the mortality risk was highest in September and October, coinciding with the first

few weeks of the hunting season (10 September to 28 February). During winter and early

spring mortality risk was very low, but increased slowly and gradually until mid-June,

302 yielding another peak in mortality risk. The risk of harvest mortality is mainly relevant in the

autumn, and the spring peak in mortality risk is driven exclusively by natural mortalityfactors.

305

306 **Discussion**

307 Survival

In our study area we estimated annual survival to be 0.43 ± 0.04 SE, with no discernible 308 distinction between years. This annual survival probability is comparable to previous studies 309 from other localities in Norway (Figure 5; Sandercock et al. 2011) and North America 310 (Martin, Hannon & Rockwell 1989; Sandercock, Martin & Hannon 2005). Annual survival in 311 our study area was lower than the estimates by Sandercock et al. (2011) for annual survival in 312 non-harvested areas (0.54, 95% CI = 0.38 - 0.70) and areas with experimental treatments of 313 15% harvest (0.47, 95% CI = 0.35 - 0.59), as well as the estimate in Smith and Willebrand 314 (1999) for non-harvested areas (0.53, 95% CI = 0.40 - 0.67). However, the survival 315 probability found in our study area was higher than those reported under 30% experimental 316 harvest in central Norway (Sandercock et al. 2011; 0.30, 95% CI = 0.20 - 0.40) and under 317 harvest in central Sweden (Smith & Willebrand 1999; 0.28, 95% CI = 0.18 - 0.38, Figure 5). 318 During our study period (2015/16 to 2019/20) local management reported an average harvest 319 rate of 18% (Tord Åberg, pers. comm., 25.06.2020), based on estimated population size and 320 total bag size, in our study region in Lierne municipality. Taken together, these studies 321 indicate that higher harvest rates yield lower annual survival of willow ptarmigan, which 322 further demonstrate that harvest mortalities are at least partially additive to natural mortalities. 323 This gives some insight into the importance of harvest intensity on annual survival for willow 324 ptarmigan in Scandinavia. We did not find any clear difference in annual survival between 325 males and females. This might be the result of counteracting seasonal effects, as suggested by 326 (Hannon, Gruys & Schieck 2003); in general we found that males tended towards lower 327 survival (although not statistically significant) than females in autumn, while females had 328 substantially lower survival than males during summer. 329

330

In winter and spring, survival was generally high, and there were no clear signs of sex 331 differences in survival. However, juvenile birds had much lower survival in spring than adult 332 birds. Willow ptarmigan vigorously defend their established territories from any intruders, 333 including juveniles (Pedersen, Steen & Andersen 1983; Rørvik, Pedersen & Steen 1998; 334 335 Eason & Hannon 2003). We expect that inexperienced yearlings trying to acquire a territory may be less alert to predators during this time, and may therefore suffer greater mortality risk 336 than adults. This difference might arise due to differential predation pressure, and Barichello 337 and Mossop (2011) suggested that gyrfalcon exerts higher predation pressure on young 338 ptarmigan compared to adults. Such a preference would indicate that juveniles are easier prey 339 than adult birds and could explain the lower survival of juveniles in spring found in this study. 340 341 Inexperience may also affect the foraging ability of young birds during winter-spring, resulting in poor spring body condition (Wiebe & Martin 1998). 342

- 343 We also found a distinct difference in survival between males and females during summer,
- 344 with female willow ptarmigan having markedly lower survival compared to males. Hannon,
- Gruys and Schieck (2003) suggest that female willow ptarmigan are more prone to predation
- in the breeding season than males as a result of their great parental investment. This
- investment includes the process of egg laying and incubation, as well as any clutch defense
- behavior towards predators (Martin & Horn 1993). Both male and female willow ptarmigan
- defend the nest from predators, although males for the most part indirectly defend the nest bydefending their female partner (Martin 1984; Martin & Horn 1993). The higher survival of
- males during summer suggest that they do not invest as much in the nest and are therefore in
- better condition than females during this time, allowing them to more effectively avoid
- 353 predation.
- There was no significant distinction in autumn survival between male and female willow
- ptarmigan, but our results did provide some indications that females have higher survival
- during autumn. Because our sample size in autumn is lower than in the other seasons resulting
- from mortalities between winter tagging and autumn, the power to detect any trend is also
- lower in autumn compared to the other seasons.
- 359

360 Cause-specific mortality risk

In our study, we found that natural mortality risk varied throughout the year, revealing a

- minor peak in late September and a major peak in mid-June. Sandercock *et al.* (2011) found a
- very similar pattern, although they reported an autumn peak that was more distinct and a
- summer peak that occurred somewhat earlier than mid-May. In our study, the summer peak in
- natural mortality risk (Figure 4c) coincided with late incubation or hatching stage, a period
 which has previously been associated with high mortality risk (Winder *et al.* 2014; Winder *et*
- *al.* 2016). The reason for this heterogeneity between the studies is of yet unknown.
- 368 Differences in climate between the two locations could explain the observed distinctions, with
- the Lierne study area being located both further north and further inland than Meråker-Selbu,
- 370 which may cause the breeding dates of willow ptarmigan and/or predators to differ between
- the two areas. The distance and distinct climates between Lierne and Meråker-Selbu means
- that there could also be spatial differences in the predator communities of the two areas as
- well, yielding differing mortality risk patterns. Moreover, our data was collected
- approximately 20 years later than the data analyzed by Sandercock *et al.* (2011), which means
- that temporal changes to the predator community is also a potential explanation for the
- 376 observed differences.
- 377 As expected, the vast majority of harvest mortalities occurred during the first weeks of the
- autumn hunting season, and the annual patterns in harvest mortality risk were mostly driven
- by these weeks. We found our estimated harvest mortality risk (0.24 ± 0.04 SE) to be identical
- to the estimate of hunting mortality in autumn in central Sweden (Smith & Willebrand 1999). It is important to note that the core group in our study (Constant and Lificillat) are easily
- 381 It is important to note that the core areas in our study (Gusvatnet and Lifjellet) are easily 382 accessible, and areas close to infrastructure are often associated with higher hunting effort
- accessione, and areas close to infrastructure are often associated with higher hulhting effort
 compared to more remote locations (Brøseth & Pedersen 2000; Breisjøberget *et al.* 2018).
- We found no significant autumnal difference between the sexes for either natural mortality
 risk or harvest mortality risk. Asmyhr, Willebrand and Hörnell-Willebrand (2012) were also

unable to find an effect of sex on harvest risk in a harvested area in central Sweden.

- 387 Interestingly, Sandercock *et al.* (2011) showed that females were more at risk of harvest
- 388 mortality under experimental harvest. In their experiment hunters mostly used pointing dogs
- during the hunt (Sandercock *et al.* 2011), while our study area had a mix of hunters with and
- 390 without dogs (Nils Vidar Bratlandsmo, pers. comm., 08.04.2020). Male and female willow
- 391 ptarmigan are to different degrees following the brood during the autumn hunting season, and 392 this may affect the susceptibility for being shot (Bunnefeld *et al.* 2009). We speculate whether
- this may affect the susceptibility for being shot (Bunnefeld *et al.* 2009). We speculate whether this grouping behavior may have different effects on harvest with or without dogs. As using a
- hunting dog usually gives the hunter more time to prepare before firing in each situation, it is
- 395 likely that hunters may have time to shoot more individuals from large coveys of ptarmigan
- than if hunting without a dog. Since females are more prone to grouping, this might imply that
- more females may be shot when hunting with dogs than without, which would give a possible
- reason for the observed differences between our study and Sandercock *et al.* (2011).
- 399

400 Harvest management

In our study area the willow ptarmigan harvest mortality risk was substantially higher than 401 what is generally considered to be compensatory (Sandercock et al. 2011). Moreover, there 402 seem to be a clear connection between harvest rate and willow ptarmigan survival, where 403 willow ptarmigan in non-harvested areas have higher survival (Figure 5). It is therefore 404 important to implement harvest strategies that can reduce risks of overharvest. Threshold 405 harvest strategies have often been proposed as a way to counterbalance risk of harvest, 406 especially when the exploited population occur at low densities (Eriksen, Moa & Nilsen 407 2018), as it only permits harvest above a certain population threshold (Lande, Sæther & 408 Engen 1997). Although, it does imply no harvest in the years where the population size is 409

- 410 below this threshold (Lande, Sæther & Engen 1997).
- 411

412 Conclusion

The temporal resolution of this study allowed us to accurately estimate willow ptarmigan annual and seasonal survival, as well as cause-specific mortality risks. We concluded that

- seasonal patterns in mortality might differ between demographic groups, and that these
- 416 differences might not be visible when analyzed at a coarser temporal resolution. Such patterns
- 417 might be important when seeking to understand the evolution of life histories in fluctuating
- environments. Our results also provide insights into the relative importance of harvest and
- anatural mortality for overall survival probability. Although natural mortality risk outweighed
- 420 the estimated harvest mortality risk on an annual basis, harvest still constituted a relatively
- 421 large percentage of mortalities observed. Comparison with non-hunted populations support
- the view that such harvest mortality is at least partially additive. By identifying demographicdifferences in mortality risk throughout the year, our results are applicable for highlighting
- 423 areas where conservationists or small game area managers should focus their efforts.
- 425

426 Acknowledgements

- 427 We want to thank our field personnel for all effort through vast amounts of monitoring
- 428 sessions, as well as local hunting area managers (in particular Fjellstyra i Lierne led by Nils
- 429 Vidar Bratlandsmo) and mountain rangers for access to the area and invaluable assistance in
- 430 the field. The project was funded by the Norwegian Environment Agency (Funding reference
- 431 number: 17010522 and 19047014).
- 432

433 **Conflict of interest**

- 434 None declared.
- 435

436 Author contributions

- 437 M. F. Israelsen conducted the data analysis, supervised by E. B. Nilsen. E.B. Nilsen conveyed
- the main research question. All authors contributed to the data acquisition, data interpretation
- and preparation of the manuscript. All authors approved the submitted version of the
- 440 manuscript.
- 441

442 Data availability statement

- 443 Temporary location of raw data used in the analyses:
- 444 https://github.com/markusfisra/WillowPtarmiganSurvival---
- 445 <u>Review/blob/master/rawdataAnalysis.csv</u>
- 446 Temporary location of scripts developed to conduct analyses and produce figure illustrations:
- 447 <u>https://github.com/markusfisra/WillowPtarmiganSurvival---</u>
- 448 Review/blob/master/Willow%20ptarmigan%20survival%20-%20Review%20edit%2007.07.20.Rmd
- 449 Upon acceptance, both data and analysis scripts will be archived in a stable repository with a450 citable DOI.
- 451

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- 603

Table 1. Number of radio tagged birds and mortalities for each calendar year of the study.
Also shown is the total number of birds used in the analysis and the number of these that died
or survived until the end of the study.

Year	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Total	Total in analysis	Prop. Mort.	Prop. Surv.
Tagged birds	32	38	40	38	40	188	182	(124 / 182)	(58 / 182)
Mortalities	19	21	34	30	20	124	124	0.68	0.32

638 **Figure captions**

Figure 1. Study area (outlined box) showing all marking locations (red triangles) and
telemetry positions (blue dots) of the marked birds. The northern cluster of red triangles

represent the Lifjellet location and the southern cluster Gusvatnet.

642

Figure 2. (a) Survival of willow ptarmigan 1 August – 31 July (vertical lines represents
censoring events). (b) Annual survival for each sex and (c) annual survival for complete
willow ptarmigan years.

646

Figure 3. Seasonal survival in (a) autumn for males and females, (b) spring for juvenile and
adults and (c) summer for males and females. Vertical lines represent censoring events. Note
that the probabilities on the y-axis ranges from 0.5 to 1.

650

Figure 4. (a) Annual mortality probability due to natural causes and harvest. (b) Autumn

mortality probability due to natural causes and harvest. Note that the range of probabilities on

the y-axis goes from 0 to 0.40 for (a) and (b). (c) Smoothed instantaneous hazard function

showing daily hazard risk for total, harvest and natural mortality.

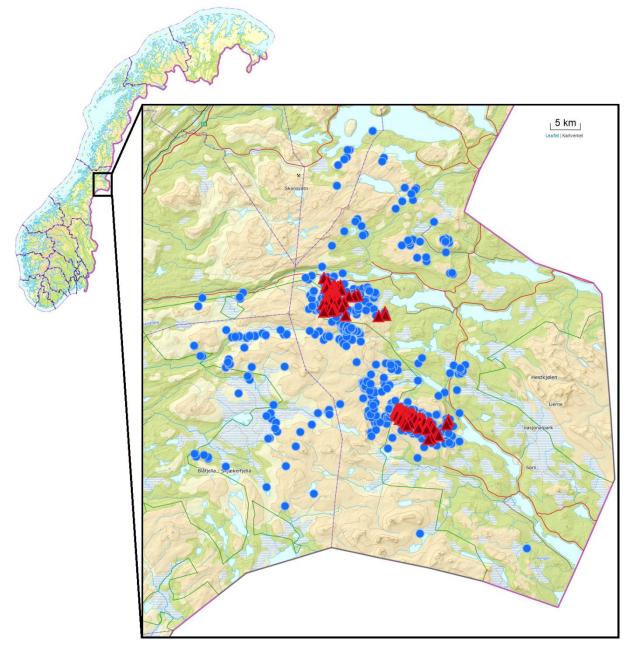
655

Figure 5. Annual survival estimates for this study (Lierne 2015-2019, harvested area, in

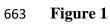
orange) in comparison to what was found in Sandercock *et al.* (2011; Meråker-Selbu in

central Norway, non-harvested area, 15% and 30% harvest rate) and Smith and Willebrand

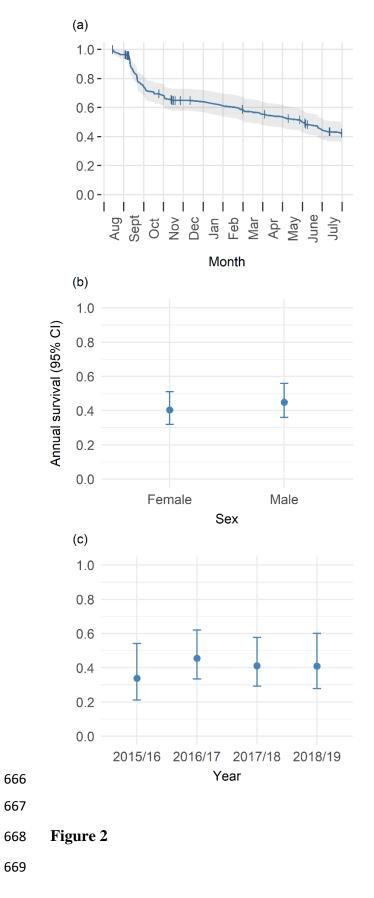
659 (1999; central Sweden harvested area and central Sweden non-harvested area).

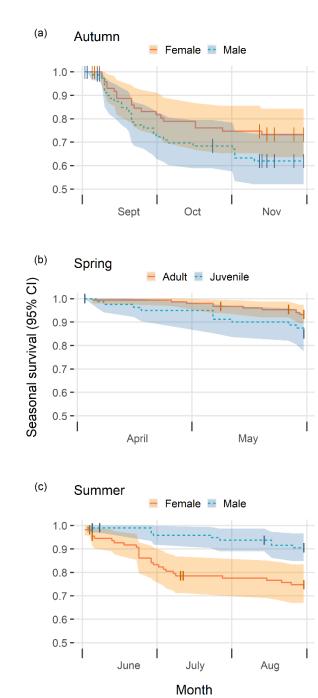












- 673 Figure 3

